Cham language

Cham is a Malayo-Polynesian language of the Austronesian family, spoken by the Cham of Southeast Asia. It is spoken primarily in the territory of the former Kingdom of Champa, which spanned modern Eastern Cambodia and Southern Vietnam. The Western variety is spoken by 220,000 people in Cambodia and 25,000 people in Vietnam. As for the Eastern variety, there are about 73,000 speakers in Vietnam, [2] for a total of approximately 320,000 speakers.

Cham is the principal and most spoken language among the Chamic languages, which are spoken in parts of mainland Southeast Asia, North Sumatra and on the island of Hainan. Cham is notable for being the oldest-attested Austronesian language, with the Dong Yen Chau inscription being verifiably dated to the late 4th century AD.

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| Cham | | | | |
|---------------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Pronunciation | [caːm] | | | |
| Native to | Cambodia and Vietnam | | | |
| Region | Southeast Asia | | | |
| Ethnicity | Cham | | | |
| Native speakers | 320,000 (2002 - 2008 census) ^[1] | | | |
| Language family | Austronesian | | | |
| | Malayo- Polynesian | | | |
| | Malayo- Sumbawan (?) | | | |
| | ■ Chamic | | | |
| | Coastal | | | |
| | ■ Cham | | | |
| Dialects | Western Cham (245,000) ^[2] Eastern Cham | | | |
| | (73,000) | | | |
| Writing system | Cham, Arabic, Latin | | | |
| Official sta | ntus | | | |
| Recognised minority language in | ✓ Vietnam✓ Cambodia | | | |
| Language codes | | | | |
| ISO 639-3 | Either: cja – Western Cham cjm – Eastern Cham | | | |
| Glottolog | cham1328 (htt p://glottolo g.org/resourc e/languoid/i d/cham1328) ^[3] | | | |

Phonology

Consonants

| | | Labial | Alveolar | Palatal | Velar | Glottal |
|--------------------|-----------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----------|
| Plosive | voiceless unaspirated | <u>p</u> | ţ | <u>c</u> | <u>k</u> | ? |
| Piosive | voiceless aspirated | <u>p</u> h | <u>t</u> h | <u>C</u> h | <u>k</u> h | |
| Implosive | | <u>d</u> | ₫ | | | |
| Nasal | | <u>m</u> | <u>n</u> | ñ | <u>ŋ</u> | |
| Liquid | | | Ī | | | |
| Fricative | | | <u>s</u> | | | <u>h</u> |
| Rhotic | | | | | X | |
| <u>Approximant</u> | | | | į | w | |

Vowels

Monophthongs

| | Front | Central | Back |
|-------------|----------|----------|-----------|
| High | <u>i</u> | <u>i</u> | <u>u</u> |
| Mid (Tense) | <u>e</u> | <u>ə</u> | <u>o</u> |
| Mid (Lax) | <u>ε</u> | | <u> 2</u> |
| Low | | <u>a</u> | |

Diphthongs

ia, iw (occurs only before -?), ea, ua, oa, au (occurs only before -?),

iə, εə, ɔə, uə.

Grammar

Word formation

There are several prefixes and infixes which can be used for word derivation.^[5]

- prefix pa-: causative, sometimes giving more force to the word
 - thău (to know) → pathău (to inform)
 - blēi (to buy) → pablēi (to sell)
 - bier (low) → pabier (to lower)

- yău (like, as) → payău (to compare)
- jϞ (finished) → pajœû (well finished)
- prefix $m\omega$ -: sometimes causative, often indicates a state, possession, mutuality, reciprocity
 - jruu (poison) → mœjruu (to poison)
 - gruu (teacher) → mœgruu (to study)
 - téan (belly) → mœtéan (pregnancy)
 - boḥ (egg, fruit) → mœboḥ (lay an egg, give fruit)
 - daké (horn) → mœdaké (having horns)
- prefix ta- or da-: frequentative
 - galung (to roll) → tagalung (to roll around)
 - *dâp* (to hide oneself) → *dadâp* (to be wont to hide oneself)
- infix -an-: noun formation
 - pvâch (to speak) → panvâch (speech)
 - tiêu (row) → taniêu (oar)
 - dok (to live) → danok (house, living place)
- infix -mœ-: no specific meaning
 - payău (to compare) → pamœyău (to compare)

Reduplication is often used:^[5]

- palẽi, pala-palẽi (country)
- raḥaḥ, raḥaḥ-raḥœp (misery)

Syntax and word order

Cham generally uses SVO word order, without any case marking to distinguish subject from object:^[6]

Dahlak atong nhu.

I beat he he beat I
I beat him.

Nhu atong dahlak.

He beats me.

Dummy pronominal subjects are sometimes used, echoing the subject:

InϞ hudiêp dahlak **nhu** atong ad ei puthang nhu.

my wife's mother **she** beat her husband's younger sister

"My wife's mother beats her husband's younger sister."

Composite verbs will behave as one inseparable verb, having the object come after it:

Bloḥ nhu ḍiḥ dii apvẽi anẽk lakẽi. then she lie at fire (i.e.: give birth) son "Then she gave birth to a son."

Sometimes, however, the verb is placed in front of the subject:

```
Lêk dahlak.
fall I
"I fall."
```

Auxiliary verbs are placed after any objects:

```
Nhu ba hudiêp nhu nau.
he bring his wife go
"He brings his wife."
```

If a sentence contains more than one main verb, one of the two will have an adverbial meaning:

```
Nhu dâp klaḥ mœtai.
he hide evade death
"He evaded death by hiding."
```

Adjectives come after the nouns they modify:^[7]

```
thang prong
house big
"a big house"
```

If the order is reversed, the whole will behave like a compound:

```
ôrang prong shapperson big noise"a noisy person"
```

Composite sentences can be formed with the particle *krung*:^[8]

```
danau krung aï that ikan
                              aï nhu
                                                nau tapak
thaa drẽi athău thaa
                      krung brei kaa
drẽi mœyău
                                                                            brother is
                                                to go
                              nhu
                                                                    which
                                                             lake
                                                straight
                             his brother
the dog and the cat
                      which
                                                "to go straight to the lake where his
                              gave him
                                                brother was fishing"
"the dog and the cat his brother gave
him"
```

It is also possible to leave out this particle, without change in meaning:^[6]

| Dahlak br <i>ẽi athêh na</i> n | kaa va dahlak | Ø | dok dii palẽi Ram. |
|--------------------------------|---------------|-----|----------------------------|
| I give this horse | to my uncle | who | live in the village of Ram |

[&]quot;I have given this horse to my uncle, who lives in the village of Ram."

Questions are formed with the sentence-final particle $r\tilde{e}i$:^[9]

Anẽk thău vakhar **rẽi**? child know writing **Q** "Can you write, child?"

Other question words are in situ:

Heû nau hatau?
you go where
"Where are you going?"

Nominals

Like many languages in Eastern Asia, Cham uses <u>numeral classifiers</u> to express amounts.^[10] The classifier will always come after the numeral, with the noun coming invariably before or after the classifier-numeral pair.

| limϞ | ροψ | chœk | palẽi | naṃ | ροψ |
|---------|-------|----------|-----------|-------|-----|
| five | CLF | mountain | village | six | CLF |
| "five m | ounta | uins" | "six vill | ages" | |

The above examples show the classifier $bo\dot{p}$, which literally means "egg" and is the most frequently used — particularly for round and voluminous objects. Other classifiers are $\hat{o}rang$ (person) for people and deities, $\dot{p}\hat{e}k$ for long objects, $bla\dot{p}$ (leaf) for flat objects, and many others.

The days of the month are counted with a similar system, with two classifiers: one (*bangun*) used to count days before the full moon, and the other one (*ranaṃ*) for days after the full moon.^[11]

| harêi | thaa | bangun | harêi | dvaa | klaņ |
|-----------|----------|-----------|-----------|-------------|-----------|
| day | one | CLF | day | two | CLF |
| "first da | ay after | new moon" | "second o | day after f | ull moon" |

Personal pronouns behave like ordinary nouns and do not show any case distinctions. There are different forms depending on the <u>level of politeness</u>. The first person singular, for example, is $k \bar{a} u$ in formal or distant context, while it is dahlak (in Vietnam) or hulun (in Cambodia) in an ordinarily polite context. As is the case with many other languages of the region, kinship terms are often used as personal pronouns.^[8]

<u>Comparative</u> and <u>superlative</u> are expressed with the locative preposition *di/dii*:^[12]

```
tapaa di aï nhu
big at his brother
"bigger than his brother"
```

Verbs

There are some particles that can be used to indicate $\underline{\text{tense}}/\underline{\text{aspect}}$. The future is indicated with *shi* or *thi* in Vietnam, with *hi* or *si* in Cambodia. The perfect is expressed with $j\alpha\hat{u}$. The first one comes in front of the verb:

```
Arak ni kău shi nao.
now I <u>FUT</u> go
"I will go now."
```

The second one is sentence-final:

```
Shit traa kău nao jϞ. little more I go <u>PRF</u> "I'll be gone in a moment."
```

Certain verbs can function as auxiliaries to express other tenses or aspects. [14] The verb dok ("to stay") is used for the continuous, vak ("to return") for the repetitive aspect, and kiang ("to want") for the future tense.

The negation is formed with $\hat{o}h/\hat{o}$ at either or both sides of the verb, or with $di/dii^{[15]}$ in front. [13]

The imperative is formed with the sentence-final particle $b\hat{e}k$, and the negative imperative with the preverbal $jvai/jv\tilde{e}i$ (in Vietnam and Cambodia respectively).^[13]

Sociolinguistics

Diglossia

Brunelle observed two phenomena of language use among speakers of Eastern Cham: They are both $\underline{\text{diglossic}}$ and $\underline{\text{bilingual}}$ (in Cham and Vietnamese). Diglossia is the situation where two varieties of a language are used in a single language community, and oftentimes one is used on formal occasions (labelled **H**) and the other is more colloquial (labelled **L**). [16][17]

Dialectal differences

Cham is divided into two primary dialects. Western Cham is spoken by the Cham in Cambodia as well as in the adjacent Vietnamese provinces of <u>An Giang</u> and <u>Tây Ninh</u>. Eastern Cham is spoken by the coastal Cham populations in the Vietnamese provinces of <u>Bình Thuận</u>, <u>Ninh Thuận</u>, and <u>Đông Nai</u>. The two regions where Cham is spoken are separated both geographically and culturally. The more numerous Western Cham are predominantly <u>Muslims</u> (although some in Cambodia now practice <u>Theravāda Buddhism</u>), while the Eastern Cham practice both <u>Islam</u> and <u>Hinduism</u>. Ethnologue states that the Eastern and Western dialects are no longer mutually intelligible. The table below gives some examples of words where the two dialects differed as of the 19th century. [18]

| | Cambodia | southern Vietnam | | | |
|---------------------|---------------|------------------|--|--|--|
| vowels | | | | | |
| child | anœk | anẽk | | | |
| take | tuk | tôk | | | |
| not | jv <i>ẽ</i> i | jvai | | | |
| | sibilants | | | | |
| one | sa | tha | | | |
| save from drowning | srong | throng | | | |
| salt | sara | shara | | | |
| equal | samu | hamu | | | |
| final consonants | | | | | |
| heavy | trap | trak | | | |
| in front | anap | anak | | | |
| lexical differences | | | | | |
| market | pasa | darak | | | |
| hate | атоḥ | limuk | | | |

Lê et al. $(2014:175)^{[19]}$ lists a few Cham subgroups.

- Chăm Poông: in Thạnh Hiếu village, Phan Hiệp commune, <u>Bắc Bình District</u>, <u>Bình Thuận Province</u>. The Chăm Poông practice burial instead of cremation as the surrounding Cham do.
- Chăm Hroi (population 4,000): in Phước Vân District (Bình Định Province), Đồng Xuân District (Phú Yên Province), and Tây Sơn District (Bình Định Province)
- Chàvà Ku, a mixed Malay-Khmer people in Châu Đốc

Writing Systems

<u>Cham script</u> is a <u>Brahmic script</u>.^[2] The script has two varieties: *Akhar Thrah* (Eastern Cham) and *Akhar Srak* (Western Cham). The Western Cham language is written with the <u>Arabic script</u> or the aforementioned Akhar Srak.^{[20][21]}

Dictionaries

The Ming dynasty Chinese Bureau of Translators produced a Chinese-Cham dictionary.

See also

- Cham script
- Cham people
- Cham calendar
- Champa kingdom

Notes

- 1. Western Cham (https://www.ethnologue.com/18/language/cja/) at *Ethnologue* (18th ed., 2015) Eastern Cham (https://www.ethnologue.com/18/language/cjm/) at *Ethnologue* (18th ed., 2015)
- 2. Cham. In *The Unicode Standard, Version 11.0* (p. 661). Mountain View, CA: Unicode Consortium.
- 3. Hammarström, Harald; Forkel, Robert; Haspelmath, Martin, eds. (2017). "Cham" (http://glottolog.org/resource/languoid/id/cham1328). Glottolog 3.0. Jena, Germany: Max Planck Institute for the Science of Human History.
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- 5. Aymonier 1889, chapt. X
- 6. Aymonier 1889, chapt. XXI
- 7. Aymonier 1889, chapt. XIII
- 8. Aymonier 1889, chapt. XII
- 9. Aymonier 1889, chapt. XIX
- 10. Aymonier 1889, chapt. XI
- 11. Aymonier 1889, chapt. VIII
- 12. Aymonier 1889, chapt. XVI
- 13. Aymonier 1889, chapt. XV
- 14. Aymonier 1889, chapt. XIV
- 15. This happens to be homophonous with the locative preposition.
- 16. Brunelle, Marc (2008). "Diglossia, Bilingualism, and the Revitalization of Written Eastern Cham". *Language Documentation & Conservation*. **2** (1): 28–46. hdl:10125/1848 (https://hdl.ha.ndle.net/10125%2F1848).
- 17. Brunelle, Marc. (2009). Diglossia and Monosyllabization in Eastern Cham: A sociolinguistic study. In J. N. Stanford & D. R. Preston (Eds.), *Variation in Indigenous Minority Languages* (pp. 47-75). John Benjamins.
- 18. Aymonier 1889, chapt. IX
- 19. Lê Bá Thảo, Hoàng Ma, et. al; Viện hàn lâm khoa học xã hội Việt Nam Viện dân tộc học. 2014. *Các dân tộc ít người ở Việt Nam: các tỉnh phía nam*. Ha Noi: Nhà xuất bản khoa học xã hôi. **ISBN 978-604-90-2436-8**
- 20. Hosken, Martin (2019), *L2/19-217 Proposal to encode Western Cham in the UCS* (https://www.unicode.org/L2/L2019/19217-western-cham.pdf) (PDF)
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Further reading

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External links

Kaipuleohone has an archive including written materials of Cham

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